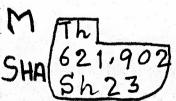
ON-LINE CONTROL OF MACHINE TOOL VIBRATION DURING TURNING OPERATION

by M. S. SHARATH

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NO





DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL ENGINEERING INDIAN INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY KANPUR September, 1988

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Dedicated to

My Grand Father

<u>Certificate</u>

This is to certify that the thesis entitled,
"On-Line Control of Machine Tool Vibration during Turning
Operation" by Sharath, M.S., Roll No. 8620537, is a
record of work carried out under my supervision and
has not been submitted elsewhere for a degree.

September, 1988

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Abstract

Machine tool Chatter is one of the major factors for limiting the performance of the machine tool. Much attention has been focussed on minimizing this problem either by improving the dynamic compliance of the structure or by selecting the cutting conditions such that Chatter does not occur. Limiting the cutting conditions leads to a lower production rate.

Machine tool Chatter is bound to affect surface finish and dimensional accuracy. The surface roughness is governed by the relative displacement between the tool and the workpiece. As this relative displacement directly affects the depth of cut, in principle if this depth of cut variations are prevented or reduced, the surface finish should improve,

In this thesis an attempt has been made to design a control system which will reduce variations in the depth of cut and hence improve surface finish during turning operation in a centre lathe. The control system consists of an optical sensor to measure relative displacement between the tool and the workpiece and a tool actuator to reduce this relative displacement. The sensor consisting of an ordinary bulb as a

set-up, achieved a high resolution of 1µm. The sensitivity was as high as 2.206 mV/µm for a cylindrical surface having a surface roughness value of 11.5 pm. The sensor has a wide working range of about 1.1 mms (within 2.5% linearity) and sufficient reliability for specific research purposes. The tool actuator was designed to hold as well as excite the tool by vibrating the same along the radial direction. The sensor probe was positioned beside the tool. The tool actuator, based on electromagnetic principle, has some distinctive features in its performance, such as a frequency range of 10 to 400 Hz and a peak-to-peak amplitude upto 100µms.

The principle, verified by experimental results, indicated improvements in surface finish for different cutting conditions and parameters.

The improvement in surface finish was shown by measuring two identical surfaces machined without and with feedback control. Comparing the amplitudes of vibration without and with feedback control by a socalled amplitude reduction ratio was determined, which has the maximum value of 1.33. Experimental results show 22% improvement in surface finish.

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 <u>Introduction</u>

Most of the research studies in the field of adaptive control of machine tools have been carried out with the main objective of either increasing production rate or reducing cost. The parameters to be controlled are cutting force, spindle torque, tool wear, temperature in the cutting zone etc. (1) . Efforts have been made to develop algorithms to relate these parameters to a predefined performance index and then control the performance index by varying either speed or feed rates or both of a machine tool, with reasonable success (2). Attempts to improve surface finish by adaptive control system have been considered only in the recent past (3). This is basically due to the lack of reliable sensors.

Machine tool chatter is considered to be one of the main reasons for the detrimental surface finish. Chatter is recognized as one of the primary performance index of a machine tool. Chatter is undesirable because of its adverse effects on surface finish, machining accuracy and tool life. Furthermore, Chatter is also responsible for lower production rate because, if no solution to eliminate Chatter can be found, material removal rates have to be lowered until

vibration free performance is obtained. Ofcourse, Chatter is not the only vibration phenomenon occurring under practical conditions. Free vibration (induced by shock) and forced vibration (induced by unbalance effects, gear and bearing errors, etc.) either arising in the machine itself or transmitted through the foundation from other machines are frequently encountered and are difficult to avoid. However, as soon as the causes responsible for free or forced vibration have been identified, it is always possible to find methods of eliminating them. The physical causes underlying the mechanism of Chatter are not fully understood and this is why it is so often extremely difficult to find any solution to eliminate them. In addition, Chatter is so inconsistent that the tendency of a machine to exhibit Chatter is often observed in the developing stage. The most important characteristic property of Chatter vibration is that it is not induced by external periodic forces, but rather maintained and generated in the vibratory process itself (18).

In the following section a detailed review of relevant works carried out in the field of machine tool Chatter as well as on-line measurement and control of machine tool performance is presented.

1.2 Review of the Previous Work

Ledergerber (4) has dealt with the basic considerations which have led to the development of control systems allowing more automation of machining cycle. He has also described a new adaptive control system for turning operation with preselected speed. Only the feed rate is varied with torque of the spindle as a performance index. It is also shown that by employing adaptive control for turning operations economical advantage can be achieved.

A Galip,Ulsoy, Yoram Koren and Fred Rasmussen (3) have listed the principal developments in the field of adaptive control over the past two decades. Some of the reasons for insufficient progress in the field of adaptive control have been listed as lack of development of reliable sensors and stable-parameter-adaptive-control strategies.

Slavko M. Arvoski ⁽⁵⁾ presents a survey of developed wear sensors for adaptive control systems of machine tools. Sensors based on pneumatic principle, capacitive principle, cutting resistance and optical principle have been discussed in detail. It has also been shown that optical principle has the best sensitivity, accuracy and reliability for measuring discontinuous wear of tool. A new sensor based on the measurement of the radioactivity of activated cutting elements of the tool during cutting has been presented.

Potential non contact optical methods for in-process surface roughness measurements have been described by K. Mitsui⁽⁶⁾. The methods include reflected light position detection and focus error detection. These methods are

described while using fibre optics and optical lever and have been applied for grinding. Swarf and cutting fluid are shown to hamper the accuracy of measurement. Methods to overcome them or protect the optical instruments from them have not been discussed.

Experimental investigation of a technique for the measurement of surface roughness using fibre-optics has been briefed by W.P.T. North and A.V. Agarwal (7). A pair of fibre optic bundles of similar specifications are used to carry both the incident light to and the reflected light from the object surface at different angles of incidence. A good correlation has been shown to exist between the average roughness of the object surface and the measured reflected light. The best angles have been found to be 0° and 35° from surface normal. A graph of percentage of maximum output and the distance between the probe and the reflecting surface (Fig. 1.1) shows that maximum output is found at distances between 0.14" and 0.3". The reflected surface used is a static flat plate. The variation of the reflected output for curved surfaces have not been shown.

A. Novak/B. Colding (8) have presented an electrooptical method by using He-Ne laser for non-contact
dimensional measurement. It has been stated that the

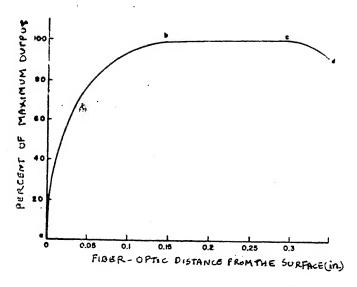


Fig. 1.1 Response Characteristic curve

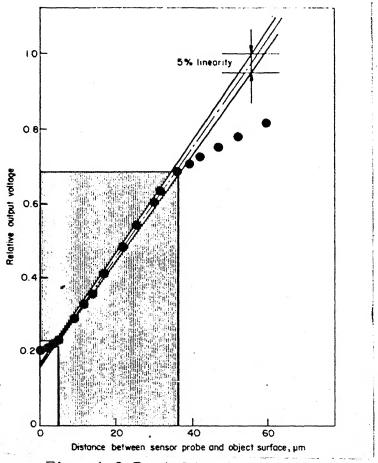


Fig. 1.2 Best linearity range

the sensitivity of the device as 5 mV/0.001mm, repeatability as 0.002 to 0.003 mm and accuracy as 0.01 mm.
The maximum diameter of the workpiece on Lathe has been
limited to 280 mm. Again the basic problem in this
method is to position the photodetector at an angle
which gives the maximum output. Vibrations in the machine
are found to change the angle of the photodetector which
will affect the accuracy of the measurement.

N. Ikawa, S. Shimada and H. Morooka $^{(9)}$ have described a photoelectronic displacement sensor consisting of a 50W light source, optical fibre bundles for transmission of the illuminating and the reflected light and photo-diode set-up. A high resolution of 0.5 nm and a stability of 1 nm in 20 seconds has been achieved . The frequency has been limited to 1.6 KHz. As seen in the graph (Fig. 1.2) the best linearity is when the distance between the fibres and the reflecting surface is between 7 μ m and 20 μ m (around 5% linearity).

It has not been mentioned as to where the photo-diode detects maximum intensity of power. The calibration curve has been stopped at 60 μ m. The nature of the curve beyond 60 μ m has not been shown. So close a distance as 30 μ m might damage the probe surface, if the workpiece surface has a poor surface finish. The probe has been

calibrated only for flat surfaces. The effect of the probe for measuring cylindrical surfaces has not been discussed.

A drift in the sensor has been noted for nominally no displacement. This is due to thermal deformation of the light source set-up by the generated heat. This may be due to the high capacity bulb (50W) used as a light source.

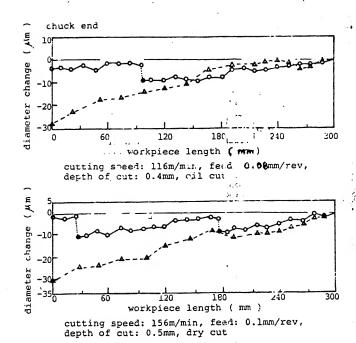
Double laser beams with continuous pursuits of a workpiece axis on a NC machine have been used by M. Shiraishi ⁽¹⁰⁾. The laser beam diameter used was about 2µm. The main problem is to focus the beam at a point and then detecting the reflections. Disturbances such as chips and cutting fluid were eliminated by air-blast principles.

T.L. Subramaniam, M.E. Devries and S.M. Wu (11) have suggested a stochastic method for detection, prediction and control of machining Chatter by a computer. The effect of speed and feed on Chatter have been considered. Then Chatter is controlled by varying feed and speed. However they have considered the vibration level of the tool holder whereas it is well known that the relative motion between the tool and the workpiece is the parameter which affects Chatter.

- B.M. Bazrov⁽¹²⁾ has investigated as to how machining accuracy is improved by controlling elastic displacements. This is done by controlling the relative motion of the tool cutting edges and workpiece locating faces. It is necessary to stabilize the ratio of the force causing elastic displacement and the stiffness of machine-fixture-workpiece-system. Three methods for reducing machining error have been suggested:
- (i) Introducing a correction to the static setting dimension.
- (ii) Stabilizing the dynamic setting dimension by introducing a correction constantly.
- (iii) Combined method by controlling feed rates and depth of cut within a specified range. Control algorithms are described for the latter method.
- N.F. Shillam⁽²⁾ has described a practical method for varying machining speeds and feeds by the direct feedback of cutting conditions. Temperature at the cutting zone is considered as an index of machining. With this system cutting speed is varied keeping the feed constant. Another system used is by controlling thrust force variations by equivalent feed rate variations so that higher metal removal rate can be achieved. This method gives automatic

protection to the tool by keeping the forces on the tool constant. Better results are achieved with both the systems combined. The main drawback of this method is that the temperature at the cutting zone increases with increasing tool wear. Hence, speed decreases with time and so metal removal rate reduces. This method shows an increase in metal removal rate by 30% during facing operation.

M. Shiraishi/K. Uehara (13) have dealt with a non-contact measuring apparatus of workpiece dimension and the in-process control utilizing the apparatus on a NC lathe. The measuring principle is by a laser unit, photoconductive cells and optical systems. The errors have been suppressed to within a tolerance limit of The errors in the dimension are corrected with positioning motors when the surface roughness exceeds the limit of \pm 10 μ m. The diametral change of workpiece along the length is shown in the Fig. 1.3. It is seen from the figure that there is a predominant size drift towards the chuck end. This might probably be due to the tool wear and thermal deformation of the tool. It is also seen in the figure that instantaneous correction is done when the tolerance crosses the limit of + 10µm. This may be one of the reasons for not achieving accuracies than that achieved.



----: without control

An example of workpieco diameter

change

: correction point
: with control

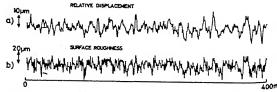


FIG 1.4 Waveforms of the Relative Displacement and the Surface Roughness (S45C, Cutting Speed: 40 m/min)

WORK MATERIAL	WORK DIAMETER	CUTTING SPEED	SPINDLE SPEED	FEED	DEPTH OF CUT
BRASS	70 mm	20 m/min.	91 rpm	1 mm/rev.	0.2 mm
CARBON STEEL	72	40	177	1	0.3
CARBON STEEL	72	60	265	1	0.3
CARBON STEEL	7.2	80	354	1.	0.3
CARBON STEEL	72	100	442	1	0.3
CARBON STEEL	72	120	531	1.	0.3

.Table. 1.1 .Cutting Conditions for the Analysis

Cross spectrum analysis is applied to the relation between the relative displacement of the tool to the workpiece and the surface roughness by K.Mitsui, H. Sato and N. Takenaka $^{(14)}$. The surface roughness is measured by using laser beam and photodiode array. The resolution of the system being $2\mu m$. The relative displacement being measured by a displacement sensor. The analysis is shown in Fig. 1.4.The experiments were conducted on a Lathe.

The cross spectrum analysis makes it obvious that the gain of the surface roughness to the relative displacement is estimated as 1.0 with high coherency for frequencies less than 200 Hz. In this experimental set—up the tool is excited by an electro—hydrautic exciter by a random signal. The drawbacks of such an arrangement are that the displacement of the tool is measured whereas it is the relative displacement between the tool and the workpiece which is related to the surface roughness. The coherency may be due to the fact that the tool is being excited randomly and the displacement sensor, which is attached to the tool, traces the same path. If the surface roughness of the workpiece is within the excited range of the exciter, then the surface roughness may match the displacement level of the tool especially when the cutting conditions (as in

this case) are such that Chatter does not occur. The cutting conditions used for the analysis are shown in Table 1.1.

- C.L. Nachtigal and N.H. Cook (15) have proved that active control of machine-tool Chatter applied to an engine lathe indicated significant improvements in production rate, in transient response and in static stiffness. An analysis of both uncontrolled system and controlled system have been dealt. A control signal from strain gauges consisting of a measure of the cutting force was used for controlling the machining process. The tool servo consisted of a electrohydraulic actuator bearing against a tool holder mounted on steel disk springs. In order to hold the tool rigid the stiffness of the springs was designed to be several times greater than that of the workpiece. But the large spring load, as seen by the actuator, limits its performance. has also been found that the system was stable over a wide range of cutting width, with lower gain. It has been suggested to replace the tool-holder springs with an active tool position feedback loop.
- C. Nachtigal (16) has presented the design basis for a force feedback Chatter control system, including both analytical and experimental considerations.

From frequency considerations, the tool itself has to be actuated in response to Chatter. An electrohydraulic servo actuator has been used. Strain gauges mounted on the toolhave been used to measure the cutting force. This particular system would be applicable only when the machine and workpiece resonant frequencies are reasonably well known and constant. The system has been proved to be stable at lower Chatter modes only.

The effect of relative vibrations in the radial direction on the tool life have been considered by A.L. Vilson et al $^{(17)}$. It has been shown that machining with a vibrating tool improves the life of the tool. All experiments have been conducted on a Lathe. An electromagnetic vibrator has been used for vibrating the tool. To maintain the set vibration frequency and amplitude feedback is done in the circuit. The relative vibration span (peak to peak amplitude) has been varied from 2 to 160 µ m with a frequency of 380 Hz. It has been assumed that vibration frequency within the range of 40 to 400 Hz does not significantly affect tool life. The tests have shown that for vibration span less than $40\,\mu$ m, the tool life has increased. vibration spans greater than 60 μ m, the wear of the tool has increased. It has been suggested to keep the vibration level below 40 µm in order to improve tool life.

1.3 Objectives and Scope of the Present Work

The present work is in the field of machine—
tool Chatter. In the past much attention has been
focussed on minimizing Chatter by improving the dynamic
compliance of the structure. These approaches have been
of a passive nature, such as increasing the structural
damping, increasing the rigidity, addition of a vibration
absorber, etc. The present work involves on—line control
of Chatter in a centre Lathe during turning operation
to achieve better accuracy and surface finish. The
objectives of the present work can be briefly mentioned
as the following:

- (i) Design of a sensing device to sense Chatter during machining of workpieces.
- (ii) Design of a tool actuator to constantly position the tool in real time.

One of the major difficulties of an active

Chatter control system is the selection of a sensor.

The signal from the sensor must contain information

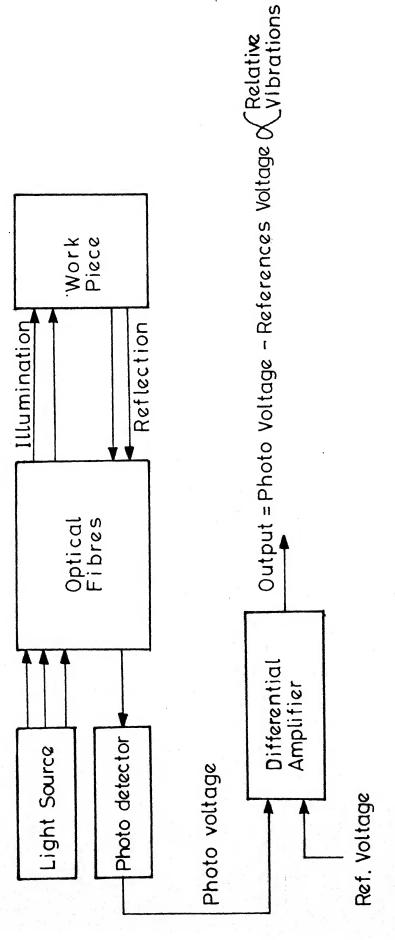
about all the vibrational modes. Since the relative

displacement between the tool and the workpiece being machined determines the Chatter amplitude, the sensor should be capable of transmitting signals proportional to the distance between the sensor probe and the work-In addition, the sensor should be reliable and accurate and sense vibrations in real time. based on various principles such as capacitive principle, pneuamtic principle, cutting resistance and optical principle etc. have been used in the past. The one which has been widely accepted to have the best sensitivity, accuracy and reliability and used more often (6,7,8,9,10,13,14)is the sensor based on optical principle. In most of the sensors based on optical principle Laser has been used successfully (8,10,13,14). But the basic problem of using a Laser is focussing and detection of the Laser beam. An ordinary 50W bulb has been used successfully in (9). The photoelectronic displacement sensor consisting of a 50W light bulb, optical fibre bundles for transmission of the illuminating and the reflected light and a photo-diode setup used in (9) seems to have a very high resolution of 0.5 nanometer. The sensor set up is economical. only drawback of this sensor is the drift of the sensor. as pointed out in the earlier section this may be due to the high wattage bulb used. The high resolution achieved with this sensor set up is possible only when the following conditions hold true.

- (a) The workpiece (or the reflecting surface) is flat.
- (b) Two similar sensor setups, i.e. a light source, optical fibre bundles and photodiode, are at the same distances from their reflecting surfaces so that the initial output which is the difference of the photo voltages is zero. One of the sensor setup is fixed as a reference.

But the conditions that exist during turning operations on a Lathe are entirely different from that which are listed above. The workpiece will be having a cylindrical surface. Also, it is extremely difficult to set a reference set-up which is always stationary. This reference set-up can be replaced by a reference voltage and the output from the differential amplifier will be a measure of relative vibrations. The block diagram of the sensing circuit is as shown in Fig. 1.5.

A dimensional control of the workpiece has to be done in real-time. As soon as relative vibrations between the tool and the workpiece, normal to the machined surface, is detected, the vibrations have to be suppressed before it stabilizes. Chatter vibrations occurring in any machine is due to the variations in the magnitude of the forces acting on the cutting tool. These forces acting on the cutting tool are functions of feed rate, cutting speed and depth of cut, under steady



F16,1.5 Block diagram of the sensing circuit

steady state cutting conditions never exist. Due to nonsteady-state cutting conditions, the forces acting on the tool vary. The variation of these forces causes the vibrations. These vibrations directly affect the dimensional accuracy and surface finish of the workpiece. (Chatter theory has been discussed in Appendix I). These variables forces are functions of feed rate, cutting speed and depth of cut. Since the dimensional inaccuracies are a direct consequence of the changes in the depth of cut due to Chatter, it can be reduced by introducing a similar vibration but with an opposite phase. This in effect, will apply a resistive force to Chatter at the onset of Chatter vibrations. This resistive force can be created by a vibrating tool holder relative to the workpiece. tool holder (called tool actuator from here onwards) should have the following characteristics.

- (a) It should be sufficiently rigid not to allow any unnecessary vibrations. But at the same time should be elastic enough to accommodate the vibrations of the exciter.
- (b) The sensing device or probe has to be rigidly held along with the tool.

In addition, the tool actuator must be compact.

The exciting force may be obtained from mechanical, electrodynamic, electrolydraulic, electromagnetic and

upon the frequency range and amplitude of the exciting force required for a particular application. Mechanical exciters are seldom used as they have a very low frequency range.

Electrohydraulic exciters are particularly suitable for heavy machine tools as they are capable of developing considerable force upto a frequency of 100 Hz. Piezoelectric exciters cannot develop an exciting force of sufficient magnitude at low frequencies. For most machine tool structures the required frequency range is between 10-1000 Hz. This range can be best realized with electrodynamic and electromagnetic exciters.

In conventional NC machines the tool is positioned by positioning motors $^{(13)}$. An electrohydraulic actuator is used $^{(15,16)}$ for this purpose. This actuator has some limitations as discussed in the previous section. An electromagnetic vibrator has been used successfully with frequency range of 40 to 400 Hz and amplitude upto $150\,\mu$ m $^{(17)}$. Eventhough the vibrator cum tool holder based on this principle has been used for studying the effects of vibration on the tool life, a feedback loop is designed to control the errors in the vibration. Based on these results $^{(17)}$ an electromagnetic vibrator was selected for the purpose of tool actuation. This electromagnetic vibrator has a frequency limit of 500 Hz.

An ideal in-process measurement and control system will continuously measure and correct all the

accuracy of in-process measurement depends on the output signal to noise ratio. Noise can also be removed by using suitable filters. In any in-process measuring system some amount of noise is unavoidable. This noise will determine the accuracy of the measuring system. The in-process control depends on the resolution of the actuating device and the feedback signal. The feedback signal should have a negative gain or in other words 180° out of phase with the disturbance or error. A schematic arrangement of the control system is shown in Fig. 1.6.

This control system is designed with the assumption that there will be one dominating mode of vibration. That mode of vibration having the maximum amplitude is considered to be the dominating mode.

In this feedback system, the vibration signals, which have a negative gain after the amplification are fedback to the cutting zone through the tool actuator. Any changes in the depth of cut or relative displacement between the tool and the workpiece is being sensed by the sensor. As the depth of cut has the maximum effect on the vibrations and hence surface roughness, a constant depth of cut is to be maintained by the control system. This effectively should improve the surface finish which is the main objective of the present work.

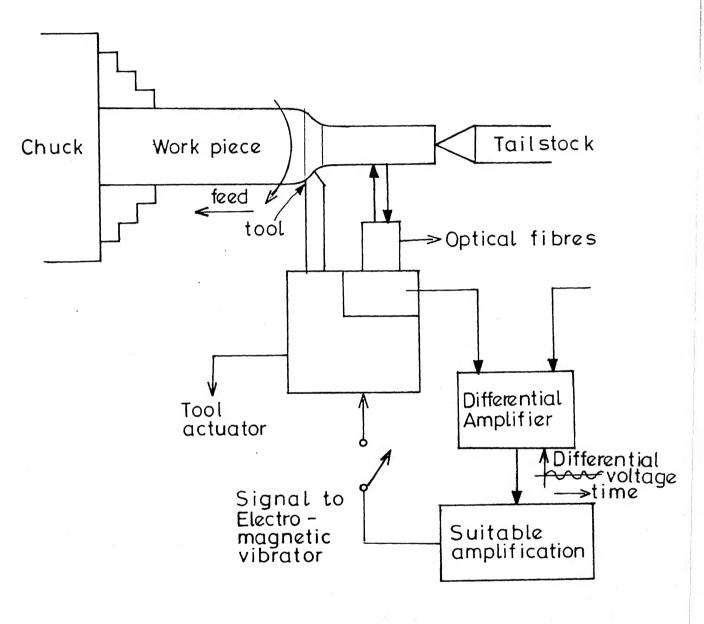


FIG. 1-6 Schematic arrangement of the Control System

Chapter 2

Design and Calibration of the Control System Devices

2.1 Design of the Sensor

As it has been discussed in section 1.3 a photoelectronic displacement sensor has been used in this present work for measuring relative vibrations between the tool and the workpiece.

The sensor consists of a light source, a photodetector and a bifurcated bunch of optical fibres as a probe. As discussed earlier, a high wattage bulb may cause thermal deformation of the set up. Therefore a 5 watt bulb is selected as a light source to illuminate the workpiece surface. In order to keep the light intensity from the source constant, a three pin regulator which provides stiff voltage of 12 volts was used. Also the bulb is held rigidly to one of the optical fibre bundles by a collet. Hence if the light intensity at the receiving fibre varies it is only due to the variation of the distance between the probe and the workpiece surface. The arrangement is shown in Figs. 2.1a and 2.1b.

As the distance between the probe and the workpiece surface varies the power intensity at the receiving fibres also varies.

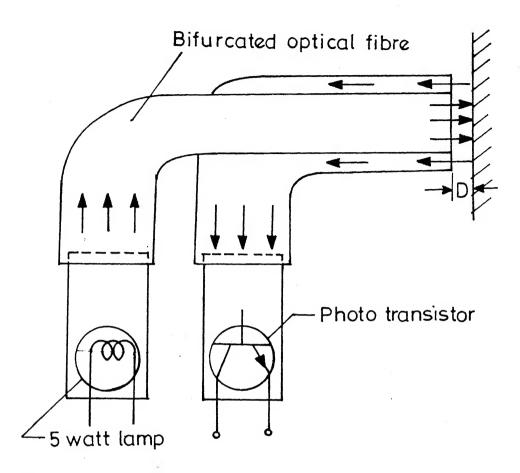


FIG. 2.1a Schematic diagram of a bifurcated optical transducer

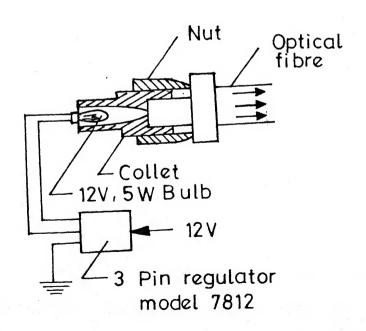


FIG. 2.1b Schematic diagram of the bulb-transducer

Photo diode, photo transistor or other photo devices are used for this purpose. A photo diode is more sensitive to optical signals and it can measure signals of very high frequencies. But the output of the photodiode is usually very low. A phototransistor is less sensitive to optical signals, but has the advantage of amplifying the output signals. Frequencies upto approximately 4 or 5 KHz can be easily measured by a photo transistor. In machine tool operation the first few modes of vibration are the ones which cause Chatter (18). The frequency range of these modes normally do not cross 1 KHz. Also the amplitude of vibration will be very less, so the change in the power intensity at the receiving fibres will be proportionately less. Considering all these factors a phototransistor is selected for the purpose of converting the optical signals to electrical signals. The nature of variation of the power intensity with the change of distance between the probe and the workpiece surface is shown in Fig. 2.2. The intensity of light increases as the distance between the probe and the workpiece surface increases, the intensity of light reaches a maximum at a certain distance and thereafter it decreases with the increase in the gap.

The converted electrical signal was further amplified by a high gain operational amplifier. However, it is very difficult to detect the small displacement signal with this system, because the power change in the light

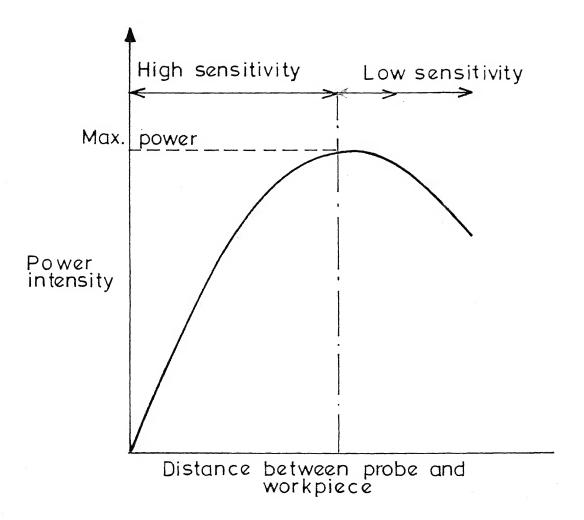


FIG. 2.2 Nature of variation of power intensity with relative distance

measurement of this weak signal aDC voltage (reference voltage) of around 4 volts is introduced, with which the actual signal is differentiated. The reference voltage was supplied through a variable multiturn potentiometer. With this set-up the initial voltage level can be set to within ±1 millivolt. The variation from this level will be proportional to the change in relative displacement between the probe and the workpiece surface. The sensing circuit is shown in Fig. 2.3.

As the amplification of the signal is high and the operational amplifier is being used as a differential amplifier, the signal-to-noise ratio increases. In order to filter high frequency noises a capacitor of capacitance 2200 pieco farads is connected across the input and output, which is optional. This will limit the measurable frequency to 603 Hz. High frequency noises are eliminated with this R-C filter. The signal is inverted in the first amplifier and then further amplified. The inversion of the signal is for feeding back the signal.

a constant distance from the probe face so that any detectable change in the output from the sensing circuit can be related to the change in the relative displacement only. This is again done by holding the probe with respect to the phototransistor by a collet and nut, which prevent any relative motion between them.

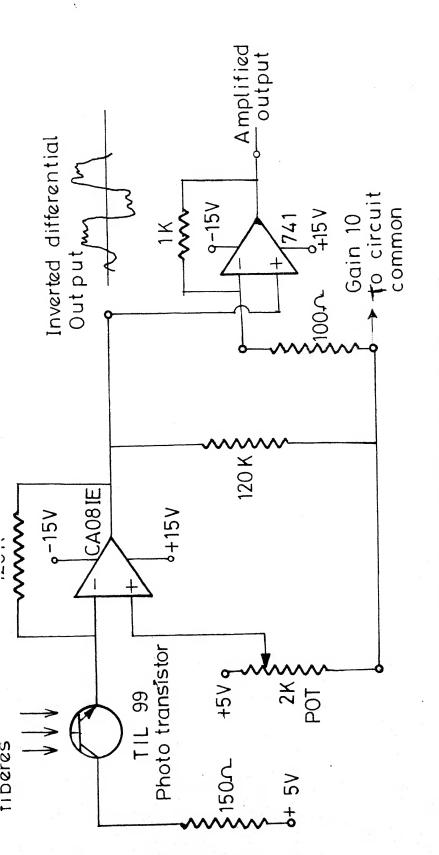


FIG. 2-3 SENSING CIRCUIT

2.2 Design of the Tool Actuator

It has been stated in section 1.3 that a tool actuator which is rigid enough to resist machining forces but at the same time respond to exciting force of the vibrator is to be designed. An electromagnetic exciter is designed for the frequency range upto 500 Hz and amplitude range upto 100 m.

2.2.1 Principle of Excitation

When an electromagnet of variable polarity is placed in line with a permanent magnet or an electromagnet of constant polarity, with either of the two being fixed the other magnet will start vibrating at the frequency of magnetic flux variation due to alternate attraction and repulsion. The variable polarity of the electromagnet being created by passing alternating current. The magnetic flux varies with the gap between the magnet and the mass being attracted. Therefore, the force of attraction and repulsion will be different with the change of this gap. This can be done by placing two magnets at the opposite poles of the electromagnet. This arrangement will also double the exciting force. The arrangement is shown in Fig. 2.4.

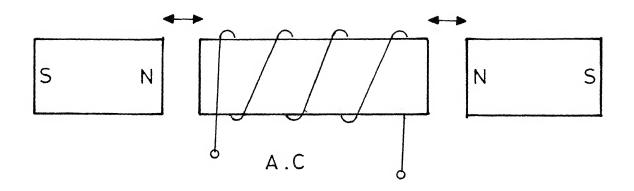


FIG. 2.4 Principle of Excitation

The amount of force generated will be proportional to the current flowing in the coils. The more the current flowing in the coils the more will be the exciting force.

The force between two magnetic poles is governed by Coulomb's law

$$F = K \frac{mm'}{d^2}$$
 (2.1)

where F is the force in newtons, m and m' are the strengths of the poles in ampere meters, d is the distance between the poles in metres and K the proportionality constant and is 10^{-7} webre/amp.mt.

With the arrangement shown in Fig. 2.4 the effective force will be approximately double that given by equation 2.1. As indicated by Eq. 2.1 the force will be more if gap between the magnetic poles is kept at a minimum.

Two electromagnets are held rigidly on a moving mass. Sixteen powerful Alnico permanent magnets, held rigidly, are used for the purpose of attracting and repelling the electromagnets. The cores of electromagnets are assemblies of special silicon steel laminations which are insulated by varnish coating and rectangular in cross-section.

Four permanent magnets having same polarity were clamped to fixed supports on opposite sides of electro-magnets. Provision is made to allow for changing the position of the permanent magnets with respect to the

electromagnets. This arrangement will ensure proper gap setting between the permanent magnets and the electromagnets.

All clamping devices are made of Aluminium and bolted by brass bolts.

Barring secondary effects of distortions it can be assumed that the vibrations produced are in the same phase as the supply voltage which can be assumed to be sinusoidal in nature.

2.2.2 Tool Holder

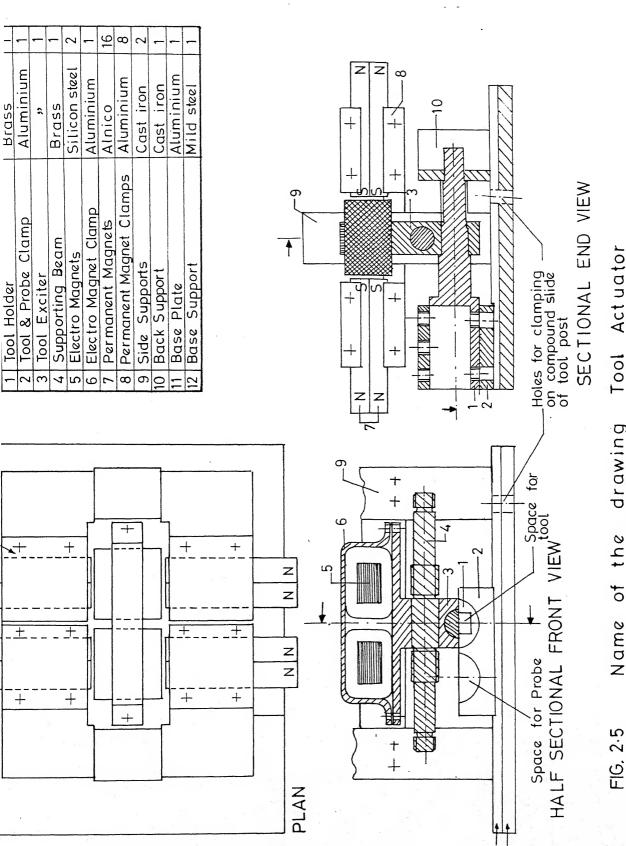
The tool holder has to satisfy some requirements. It should be able to withstand all the forces acting on the cutting tool. A provision has to be made for the excitation force to be transmitted to the tool. The tool holder has to accommodate the sensor probe also. For sensing the vibrations in the radial direction only, the sensor should be placed in the same plane as the tool and also as near to the cutting zone as possible.

As the reflecting surface is cylindrical, to obtain maximum reflection the illumination should be aimed in the radial direction only. It is found from literature review that 0° is the best angle for detecting maximum reflection. At this angle the losses are estimated to be around 30%.

The possible alternatives for positioning the sensor probe are either above the tool directed at an angle to the workpiece surface near the cutting zone or beside the tool. With the first alternative the percentage of losses will increase with increase in angle of incident light. Also stray chips will effect the intensity of reflected light. Holding the sensor probe at a certain angle may also create machining problems.

By holding the sensor probe beside the tool, alignment problems can be eliminated. However, there will be a lag in sensing the vibrations. A reasonable assumption would be that the amplitude of the tool vibrations will be more than workpiece vibrations under good workpiece clamping conditions. Since the probe is located a bit away from the cutting zone along the workpiece axis, it does not actually sense the vibration in the cutting zone but with a transportation lag. Since this transportation lag in most of the similar cases is not more than 0.1 sec. it can be neglected.

The diameter of the probe which is 28 mms does not permit the probe to be placed nearer than 50 mms from the tool tip. The tool holding block was supported from two either sides and directly from behind the tool. The front end of the tool was freely supported on the base plate to allow excitations of the electromagnetic



Tool Actuator of the drawing SCALE-1.2 Name

vibrator. The detailed drawing is shown in Fig. 2.5.

2.3 Calibration of the Sensor

The calibration of the sensor is necessary to determine the sensitivity and the resolution of the sensor. Sensitivity is defined by the electrical output from the sensor in mV to the mechanical input in μ m. The resolution is given by the minimum change in mechanical input to record a change in the electrical output of the sensor.

Both static and dynamic calibrations of the sensor are necessary. Static calibration is necessary to determine the optimum initial distance between the probe and the work-piece surface. The distance is termed as optimum when the output from the sensing circuit shows more linearity and maximum sensitivity. In the present case a distance less than 2 mm may not be possible; because of the fact that the chips in the cutting zone may come into contact with the probe surface and damage it.

Various factors affect the sensitivity of the sensor. The main factors affecting the performance of the sensor can be listed as follows:

(i) Workpiece diameter: A change in workpiece diameter may change the intensity of the reflected light, i.e. the

signal of relative vibration between the tool and the workpiece, since along with the change in workpiece diameter a new surface is exposed which may differ from the previous surface in surface finish.

- (ii) Workpiece material: The reflectivity of workpiece surfaces vary for different materials. Hence the sensitivity varies.
- (iii) Surface finish: The reflectivity of surfaces change with surface finish. The better the surface finish more will be the sensitivity.
- (iv) Uncontrolled factors: Various other factors like stray chips; circularity of the workpiece etc. will effect the sensitivity of the sensor.

The sensor was calibrated when machining mild steel workpieces; with varying cutting conditions. The cutting conditions are given in table 2.1. The workpiece was machined both with and without tailstock centre; the sensor was calibrated for both the cases. The variation of electrical output to the variation of the relative distance between the probe and the workpiece has been plotted in Fig. 2.6. The results are tabulated in Table 2.2.

Cutting Conditions:
Workpiece material: Mild steel
Tool: High speed steel
Workpiece chucked at one end
(a) Without revolving centre
(b) With revolving centre

			The second secon	The second secon	The state of the s		
Sl. No.	Workpiece diameter mms.	Cutting speed m/min	Speed RPM	Feed mm/rev.	Depth of cut mm.	Surface roughness µ m (a)	1ghness
							(2)
÷	38.52	24.20	200	0.05	0.3	21	20.1
2	38.52	24.20	200	0.075	0.3	16	12.0
en en	38.52	24.20	200	0.1	0.3	15.5	11.5
4	38.52	30.25	250	0.05	0.3	13	18.0
2	38.52	30.25	250	0.075	0.3	20.5	18.5
9	38.52	30.25	250	0.1	0.3	15	19.0
7.	38.52	38.72	320	0.05	0.3	12	13.0
· ∞	38.52	38.72	320	0.075	0.3	19	20
0	38.52	38.72	320	0.1	0.3	17	19.8

O (mV) G.C.6 D (µms) O (mV) C.C.5 D(µms) O (mV) C.C.4 D (thins) O (mV) C.C.3 D (hms) (a) Without tailstock centre $D(\mu ms) \circ (\pi M)$ C.C.2 O (mV) C.C.1 D (mms) Sl. No. 126459786

Static Calibration Results

Table 2.2

0	10		∞	0	4	7	9	12	22	51	64	78	10	45	85	00	08	38	74	3960	34	56	70	07
0	120	9	0	0	\vdash	80	00	디	20	42	50	9	80	00	15	25	35	51	70	2800	00	11	20	40
0	43	9	\vdash	7	6	4	6	Ŋ	9	4	\vdash	~	\sim	σ	∞	27	4	158	78	1927	07	\Box	22	34
0	06	 1	9	7	0	9	9	5	Н	3	3	01	21	40	50	70	90	01	20	2310	41	55	9	70
0	10			9	9	2	5	\mathcal{C}	\mathbf{C}	9	95	08	10	33	45	9	74	87	66	2060	24	50	04	23
0		0	\vdash	0	0	0	0	0	00	1	29	39	50	9	70	81	91	99	07	2110	21	40	70	81
0		\sim	9	3	$^{\circ}$	0	0	6	7	9	6	∞	98	18	42	55	69	82	96	2122	25	37	52	99
0		9	2	∞	0	0	0	Н	0	00	디	22	31	40	9	70	80	90	00	2100	21	30	40	50
0	10		Ô	4		5	∞	9	\sim	0	9	\sim	4	S	4	03	23	46	57	1721	81	96	90	18
0	80	S	3	0	6	9	0	-1	0	00	12	21	30	40	52	61	81	00	10	2220	30	40	50	09
0	20	70	9	0	\leftarrow	9	∞	7		9	18	43	55	68	91	17	30	43	49	2540	9	78	93	05
0	110	\leftarrow	3	0	5	∞	0	0.0	20	40	59	81	91	00	20	40	50	60	65	2700	78	90	01	11

Continued ...

Continued ...

9	O (mV)	28	2 Z 2 Z	5810	92	08	45	65	93	05	23	29	45	52	58	62	67	71	77	82	84	82	81	77	73	54	ı	i	1	
ບັບ	D (µms)	50		3830	90	00	20	41	64	75	92	00	12	30	41	50	09	70	92	10	20	46	61	83	00	40	ī	i	ı	
. 5	O (mV)	48	7.7	2680	79	90	03	19	30	38	57	64	80	66	02	12	21	26	34	41	44	46	48	48	48	47	42	35	ı	
ນ• ນ	D (ums)	2	2 0	3000	10	20	31	50	09	70	91	00	20	40	55	70	90	01	21	44	62	75	00	20	70	80	00	30	H	
c.c.4	O (mV)	38	ر ا	3930	60	43	61	78	22	64	74	81	03	26	44	54	99	76	86	96	01	07	08	08	08	02	86	I	i	
.	(sm n) O	06	, -	3200	30	50	09	81	00	21	31	42	80	81	00	12	25	44	61	81	99	02	39	50	70	00	20	į	ı	
.3	O (mV)	2	2 Q	3130	28	44	72	02	17	29	91	70	74	90	21	40	64	76	86	94	08	13	15	15	17	17	10	88	1	
ວ•ວ	D(µms)	09		2800	90	01	20	41	51	9	70	92	00	24	39	99	8	00	21	43	80	02	05	10	29	50	01	50	i	
c.2	O (mV)	7 2	ρ C	2710	84	60	34	45	57	89	11	36	46	55	74	80	90	00	12	15	16	17	16	13	08	01	96	87	99	
ບ.ດ	(smu) O			3000	10	300	50	09	70	99	21	40	61	73	01	12	31	50	00	21	30	57	70	01	30	41	57	71	00	
c.c.1	O (mV)	α	2 0	3350	45	51	61	05	44	75	94	03	04	03	03	98	94	88	1	i	. 1	1	1	i	ı	1	1	ı	I	
ີບ.	(sm ៧) O	5	10	3360	45	50	9	0.1	50	00	49	00	45	9	70	80	90	00	1	ı	1	I	1	1	ı	ı	-1	l	i	

	C.C.7	C.C.8		υ· υ	6	
D (µms)	O (mV)	D (µms)	Ο (μν)	D (µms)	Ο (μν.)	
000004	700000	245000	177110	0000 m	900009	
2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	080 080 1111 1080 130 130 130 130 130 130 130 130 130 13	250 11210 1210 1210 1210 2200 2200 2300 3300 3	4 4 4 4 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	1100 1110 1120 1120 1200 1200 1200 1320 13310 13310 13310	7 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	
365 390 400 410	11 12 14 14 15 16 17 17 17	81 00 15 32	08 35 52 78	13 13 42 42	12 36 43 67	39

D (µ ms) 4200	122 / 0				
_ \	O (mV)	D (ພາສ)	O (mV)	D (µms)	O (mV)
\sim 1 ·		the same of the sa	The constitution of the co	Andrew Martin and An	
	0.9	4520	5930	4550	5700
-	49	4680	0809	4700	5820
10	56	4820	6210	4830	5920
· CO	65	4920	6260	5000	6030
\sim	80	5120	6400	5180	6160
\sim	07	5250	6500	5300	6220
\sim	24	5460	6570	5410	6250
ന	38	5600	6630	5500	6280
10	46	5730	6670	5670	6340
ശ	50	5900	6700	5810	6370
ന	56	0009	6720	0009	6390
$-\infty$	59	6220	6720	6100	6400
\circ	8610	6310	0899	6370	6410
(4)	64	0099	6630	6700	6370
4	64	6810	6580	6800	6360
യ	62	7000	6580	6820	6360
\sim	60	7500	6400	7000	6300
ထ	57	ı	i	I	i

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	0	42	ω	1-	マ	CA	9	\mathcal{C}	4	\vdash	90	25	38	43	69	1840	04	18	33	48	70	77	00	22	37	57	70	90	18	26	
 !	0	\circ	LL)	\circ	\circ	\circ	00	19	31	40	55	70	8	90	00	2120	20	30	40	50	65	70	85	00	10	23	39	55	70	82	
	0	53	OJ	(C)	∞	4	9	4	4	82	04	15	26	32	40	1493	57	99	75	89	60	29	51	69	86	97	14	29	63	89	
	0	0	2	0		Н	$^{\prime}$	∞	0	00	19	30	43	51	9	1700	80	90	01	10	23	36	50	62	73	80	91	00	25	50	
,	0		0	9	9	7	9	3	2	$^{\circ}$	97	14	23	34	58	1711	84	97	12	27	43	58	73	88	03	18	34	65	87	66	
	0	0	Ö	0	0	\vdash	0	0	\vdash	00	15	28	40	50	70	1800	90	00	10	20	30	40	50	70	90	00	10	25	40	20	
	0			∞	7	2	3	5	∞	00	37	61	83	60	36	2640	84	05	28	49	71	92	25	51	68	79	01	23	46	69	
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	O	31	89	9	4	0	~	03	15	31	65	87	15	54	74	2940	15	35	65	97	45	76	97	11	43	85	46	80	77	49	
	0	10	0	\sim	10	\sim	\sim	\sim	00	10	31	45	60	80	90	2000	10	20	35	51	75	90	00	10	25	50	80	00	25	50	
	0	13	45	S	$^{\circ}$	\circ	T!	$^{\circ}$	9	~	00	20	40	47	55	1674	77	88	95	0.7	25	34	45	62	77	90	10	19	31	54	
	0	20	^1	\sim 1	\sim	10	0	[2	23	30	15	75	00	20	21	2370	50	57	75	90	00	10	20	40	9	75	00	10	25	20	

 $D(\mu_{ms})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $D(\mu_{ms})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $D(\mu_{ms})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $D(\mu_{ms})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $D(\mu_{ms})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $O(\mu_{V})$ $O(\mu_{V})$

G.C.6

C.C.5

C.C.4

C.C.3

C.C.2

C.C.1

Continued

0 7730 3430 5940 36 0 7950 3650 6430 38 0 8100 3750 6650 40 0 8200 3900 6960 41 0 8260 4250 7640 45 0 8260 4500 8140 47 0 7780 4750 8260 52 0 7780 4750 8350 55 0 7780 8380 60 0 5500 8390 65 0 6250 8390 67 0 6250 8370 70																
40 4700 7730 3430 5940 3630 4120 3700 4100 4700 70 5000 7950 3650 6430 3800 4360 4000 4480 41 10 5500 8200 3900 6960 4150 4240 4690 4580 4680 4680 4680 4680 4680 4680 5080	4.	LL)	ω	_	\circ	-	α	ന	Z.	マ	\sim	\circ	l	ı	í	ı
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40 4700 7730 3430 59 70 5000 7950 3650 64 80 5250 8100 3750 66 10 5500 8200 3900 69 30 5800 8250 4000 71 10 6000 8260 4250 76 80 7000 8000 4600 81 80 7500 7780 4750 83 80 - - 4900 83 80 - - 5500 83 83 - - 5750 83 83 - - 5750 83 83 - - 6000 83	9	∞	0	-	4	S	7	O	\sim	5	7	O	5	7	0	1
40 4700 7730 34 70 5000 7950 36 00 5250 8100 37 10 5500 8200 39 30 5800 8250 40 50 6500 8260 42 50 6500 8260 45 80 7500 7780 40 80 550 80 550	6	4	9	9		9	Ö	\vdash	$^{\circ}$	\sim	\sim	ŝ	3	\sim	\sim	1
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4 / 0 / 0 / 0 / 0 / 0 / 0 / 0	7	O	$^{\circ}$	S	∞	0	Ŋ	0	ĽΩ	ı	i	ı	ı	I	i	ı
	せ	\sim	0	←	C(1)	$\overline{}$	T()	∞	∞	$^{\circ}$	∞	1	ı	1	1	
4700 5000 5250 5250 6000 6200 6700 7250	\sim	\sim	\sim	10		\sim	വ	ഥ		\circ	CA		ı	ı	1	I

 $D(\mu ms) O(mV)$

 $D(\mu ms)$ O(mV) $D(\mu ms)$ O(mV) $D(\mu ms)$ O(mV) $D(\mu ms)$ O(mV) $D(\mu ms)$ O(mV)

C.C.5

C.C.5

C.C.4

C.C.3

C.C.2

C.C.1

Continued...

O (mV)

D (µms)

O (mV)

(**mm**) (

O (mV)

D (µms)

C.C.7

C.C.8

C.C.9

Table 2.2 (Continued):

6.	O (mV)	0	Η.	4.5	7	3910	C	16	5	30	5	5	2	20	20	5	2	i	t	I	1	
6.0.0	D (µms)	3.1	4	9	8	4000	25	50	80	00	25	50	70	00	50	20	25	ı	1	ı	ľ	
8.0.0	O (mV)	L)	_	\sim	S	4550	\circ	LO	\circ	⋖	\sim	\circ			\circ	\sim	ı	I	I	ı	ī	
)	D (µms)	40	65	90	00	5500	70	85	90	00	20	41	9	75	00	10	Ī	I	í	I	I	
C.C.7	O (mV)	8	05	22	46	75	05	11	26	41	55	69	60	39	9	77	7860	99	04	05	80	
ט•ט	D (µ ms)	근	80		55	7	30	0		0	30	0	7.1	00	20	Δ,	5600	30	0	30	0	
sı.	No.	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	ົເດ	47	48	49	20	

D = Distance between the probe and the workpiece.

O = Output voltage from the sensing circuit.

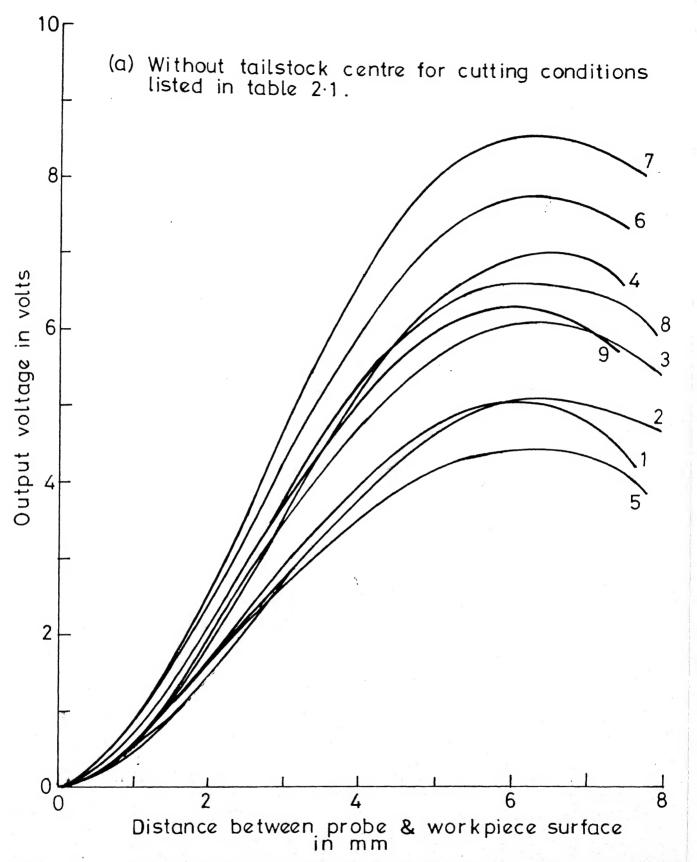


FIG. 2-6 Variation of output voltage with distance

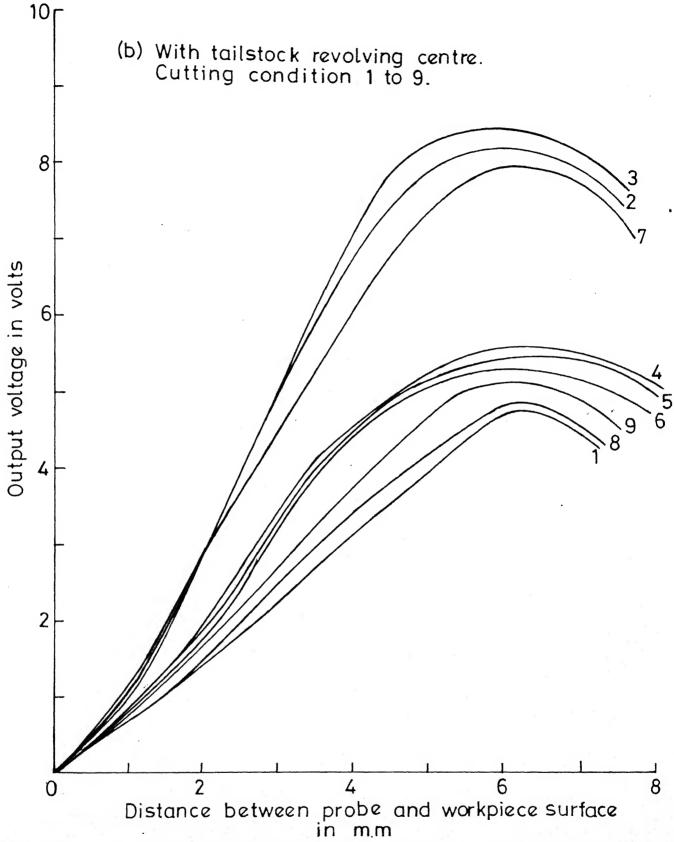


FIG. 2-6 Variation of output voltage with distance

For initial setting, the probe was brought into contact with the workpiece surface. The output from the operational amplifier was set to zero by the potentiometer. Then the probe attached to the tool post-cum-electromagnetic vibrator is gradually taken away from the work-piece surface. The gap between the probe and the machined workpiece surface was measured by a dial gauge of least count 0.01 mm. The output was measured by a digital multimeter.

It is evident from the results that the sensor is showing more linearity in the region between 1900 and 3200 μ ms. The linearity in this region can be defined by the equation

$$V = s \cdot x + b mV \qquad (2.2)$$

where V is the output from the amplifier in millivolts and x is the distance in μ ms between the probe and the workpiece surface. 's' and 'b' are constants to be determined from calibration curves. 's' is the sensitivity of the sensing circuit in millivolts/ μ m and 'b' is a constant in millivolts.

The error in linearity in the region was found to be less than 2.5% for all the cutting conditions.

The sensitivity of the sensing circuit for all the cutting conditions is given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 : Sensitivities for Various Cutting Conditions

Sl. No.	Cutting condition	Sensitivity 's' mV/µm
	<u>, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , </u>	
1	1	0.765
2	2	2.026
3	3	2.206
4	4	1.157
5	5	1.532
6	6	1.271
7	7	1.682
8	8	1.068
9	9	1.043
4		* · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Workpiece is machined with tailstock centre.

The calibration curves in Fig. 2.6(b) show a definite trend. With better surface finish the sensitivity of the sensor has improved. But some of the calibration curves in Fig. 2.6(a) overlap one another. This may be due to the fact that the workpiece was machined without a tailstock centre, which will produce ovality in the workpiece. As the curvature of the workpiece surface varies the sensitivity of the sensor varies for surfaces having same surface finish. From static calibration it was determined that the sensitivity of the sensing is s mV/u m (See Table 2.3). Therefore, for a change of 1 µm in the gap between thepprobe and the workpiece surface the change in output of the sensor has to be 's' mV. But under dynamic conditions this conclusion may not hold good. In order to ascertain the sensitivity of the sensing circuit and to determine the resolution of the sensing circuit dynamic calibration was done for one of the cutting conditions.

The dynamic calibration was done using an All-American vibration fatigue testing machine, model 150-VP-T (Vertical) with an adjustable frequency range of 5 to 60 Hz and peak to peak amplitude upto 0.150". The machined workpiece was rigidly clamped to the table of the machine. The sensor probe was held at a distance of 2.65 mms from the workpiece surface. The gap being set by a height gauge. The peak-to-peak amplitude was

measured by a piezoelectric transducer connected to a vibration meter of type 2511. The least count of the vibration meter being μ m and frequency range 0.3 Hz to 15 KHz.

With an initial gap of 2.65 mm the output from the operational amplifier was set to zero by varying the input from the potentiometer. The output was measured by an digital storage oscilloscope. The calibration setup is shown in Fig. 2.7. The results are tabulated in Table 2.4 and plotted in Fig. 2.8.

It is evident from the results that upto a peak-to-peak amplitude of 100 μ m the dynamic sensitivity of the sensor is approximately same as the static sensitivity of the sensor. The error in the output from the sensor is less than $\pm 2\%$ in the frequency range of 10 to 500 Hz. The results also show that for peak to peak amplitude of vibration of more than 100 μ m the variation in the sensitivity of the sensor is not much. The only variation is in the higher frequency range. The frequency measured by the sensor did not show any change from that of the vibrating frequency.

For frequencies above 50 Hz, the sensor was calibrated using an electrodynamic vibramate exciter, model PM-25. This calibration was essential to determine the frequency response characteristics of the sensor.

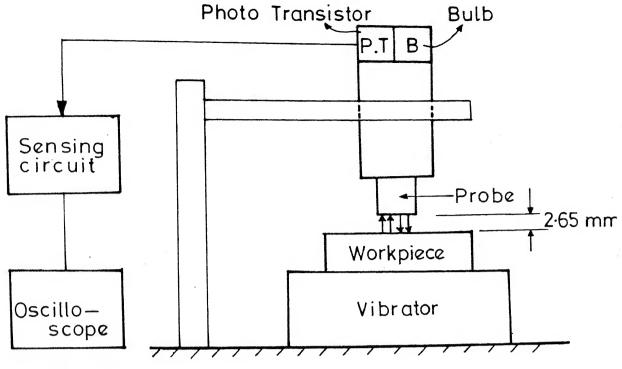
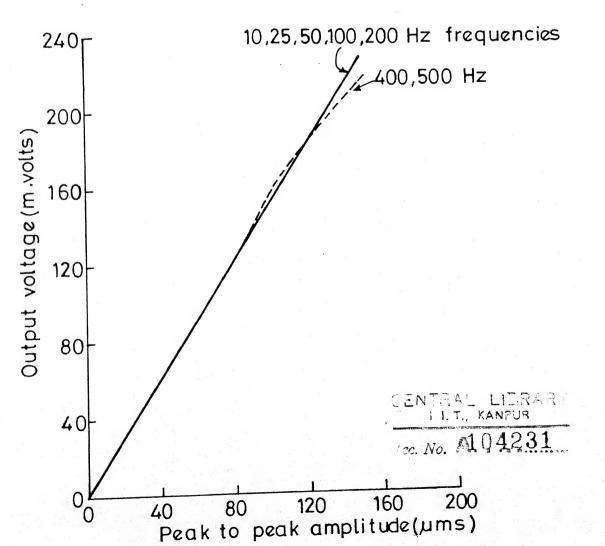


FIG. 2.7 Block diagram of sensor calibration (Dynamic) setup



Diameter: 37.92 mms.
Static sensitivity: 1.532 mV/L m
Cutting speed: 30.25 m/min.
Feed: 0.075 mm/rev.
Dynamic sensitivity: 1.54 mV/L m

01.											
500 p-p vol.		7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	92	116	140	160	220
400 p-p vol.		7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	16	116	140	160	220
200 300 p-p p-p vol. vol. (mV) (mV)		7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	92	116 1	140 1	155 1	230 2
1z 200 70. p-p vol.		7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	92	116	140	155	230
100 Hz p-p vo. (mV)		7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	92	116	140	155	230
50 Hz p-p vol. (mV)	Andreas de la companya de la company	7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	76	116	140	155	230
25 HZ p-p vol. (mV)		7.5	15,5	30.5	46	62	76	116	140	155	230
10 Hz p-p vol. (mV)	And the second s	7.5	15.5	30.5	46	62	76	116	140	155	230
p-p amp.		ر ک	10	20	30	40	50	75	06	100	150
Sl.No.		Н	, Q	m	4	ഹ	9	7	8	- - - - Oi	10

The resolution of the sensor was found to be $l\mu\,\text{m}$. A change in the output from the sensor was observed for a change in peak-to-peak amplitude of $l\mu\text{m}$.

2.4 Calibration of the Tool Actuator

The tool actuator has been shown in Fig. 2.5.

The excitation force can be varied both by changing the gap between the electromagnets and the permanent magnets and by varying the current flowing in the coils of electromagnets. The gap between the magnets has to be kept as less as possible to minimize the leakage of flux.

This will also increase the excitation force.

The assembled set up (Fig. 2.5) was clamped rigidly to the compound slide. The peak-to-peak amplitude of vibrations was measured by a piezoelectric transducer connected to a vibration meter of type 2511. For initial testing purpose voltage was applied across the coils of the electromagnets through a variac. It is assumed that the variation of magnetic flux is proportional to supply voltage which is again assumed to be sinusoidal in nature. The readings are tabulated in Table 2.5. The error in the amplitude of the vibration was observed to be $\pm~2\mu\mathrm{m}$ because of the variation in the magnetic force with vibration.

The frequency range of the vibrator is determined by passing a signal of through a waveform Generator and a power amplifier. It is observed that at frequencies higher than 400 Hz, the peak-to-peak amplitude showed more variation at higher amplitudes. The performance of the vibrator is steady in the frequency range of 10 to 400 Hz. The results have been tabulated in Table 2.5 and the variation of peak-to-peak amplitude with variation of the voltage and frequency have been plotted in Fig. 2.9.

The results show that for exciting the tool holder to amplitudes more than 80 μm , the required excitation voltage varies more for different frequencies. Since this variation is negligible a mean excitation voltage for unit peak-to-peak amplitude for the frequency range of 25 to 400 Hz can be calculated. The mean excitation voltage for a peak-to-peak amplitude of 1 μm was calculated to be 0.13 volts (R.M.S.).

2.5 Feedback Circuitry and Instrumentation

The signals from the sensing circuit have to be suitably amplified and passed to the coils on the electromagnet in order to compensate for the Chatter. The signal should be 180° out of phase with the relative vibrations of the tool and the workpiece or else it will tend to make the system unstable. Here it has been assumed

400 Hz p-p amp. (μms)	0	11	16	22	28	30	35	53	62	63	72	80	2,7
200 Hz p-p amp. (µms)	O	11	16	22	28	30	35	5.4	62	65	74	84	01
100 Hz p-p amp. (µms)	6		16	22	28	30	36	55	64	65	77	85	0.4
50 H z p-p amp. (μ ms)	Ō	11	16	22	28	30	36	56	99	89	81	92	101
25 Hz p-p amp. (μms)	σ	11	16	22	28	30	36	58	99	69	82	95	- -
Frequency Voltage (volts) (RMS)	m	3.45	4.18	4.88	5.35	6.12	6.59	8.85	9.75	10.00	11.00	11.98	000
S1.		2	m	4	Ŋ	9	7	, &	6	10	11	17	

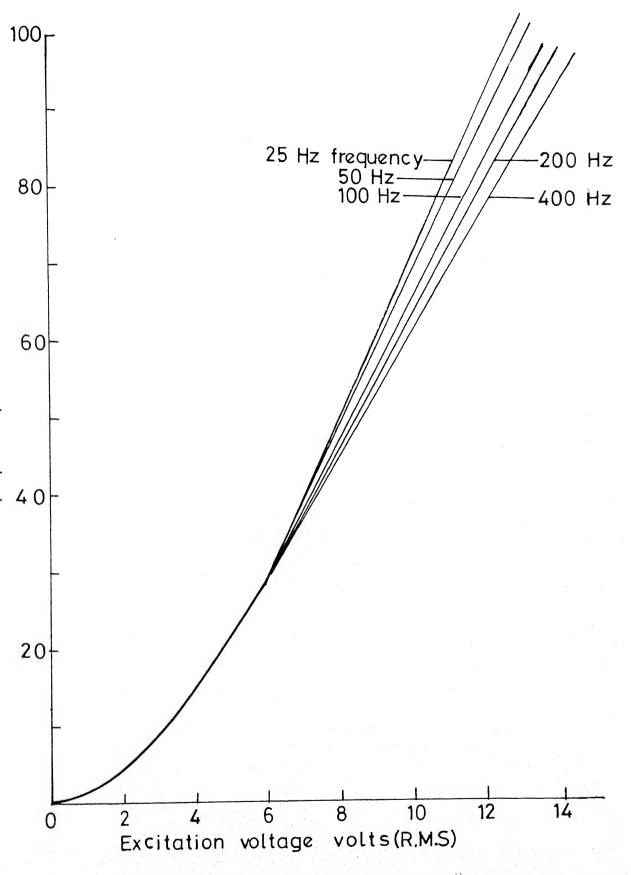


FIG. 2.9 Actuator response to Excitation voltage and frequency.

that only one principal mode of vibration exists which makes the system of machine tool and cutting process unstable. The signal has been preamplified by the first operational amplifier (Fig. 2.3). The voltage level at the output from the operational amplifier will be of the order of millivolts and the current level will be of the order of milliamperes. But the requirements for the exciter is of the order of a few volts and amperes. For a particular cutting condition the surface finish and hence the sensitivity of the sensing circuit will be constant. But for different cutting conditions and hence for different surface finishes the sensitivity varies. Therefore, for same vibration amplitude the output from the sensing circuit differs for different cutting condi-The device which passes the feedback signal to the exciter should have variable amplification. For this purpose a power amplifier (Appendix III) with variable amplification is selected. Since the input requirements of the power amplifier is more than the signal voltage from the sensing circuit, a third operational amplifier is used. Low frequency noises which are below 25 Hz are bypassed and filtered by the power amplifier. This is desirable during the function of the exciter because, otherwise, low frequency noises may result in relatively high displacement of the exciter. The feedback circuitry is shown in Fig. 2.10.

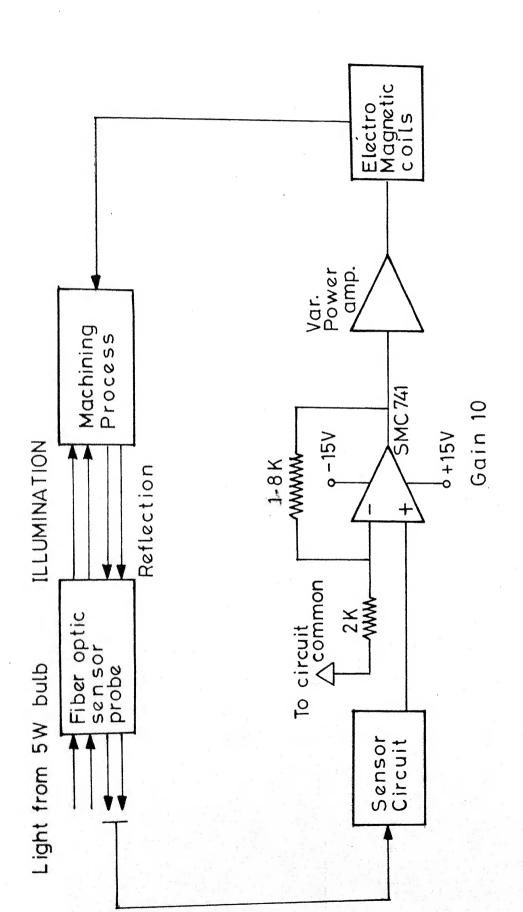


FIG.2:10 Feed back circuit

As stated earlier, the power amplification required, varies with cutting conditions. Since the sensitivity of the sensing circuit has already been calibrated the power amplification needed can be calculated with known input to the exciter. The amplification of the power amplifier for different sensitivities is given in Table 2.6.

In order to set, measure and record the signals in real time while machining, the following instruments are needed:

- (i) Digital storage oscilloscope
- (ii) Digital voltmeter
- (iii) Recorder

For each and every cutting condition the initial DC component of the output signal from the sensing circuit (Fig. 2.3) has to be offset. As the sensor probe follows the tool; the sensor will sense vibrations with respect to machined surface. Hence initially the workpiece has to be machined for a particular length and then the DC component has to be offset. This can be done by the potentiometer included in the circuit. A digital voltmeter can be used for this purpose.

The recording of the signals from the differential amplifier is accomplished by a Hi-scribe recorder. The amplification can be checked with an oscilloscope.

An overall view of the set up is shown in

Table 2.6 : Power Amplifier Amplification

Cutting conditions	Sensitivity of the sensor mV/µm	Amplification
1	0.765	48
2	2.026	18.2
3	2.206	16.6
4	1.157	31.8
5	1.532	24
7	1.682	21.8
8	1.068	34.4
9	1.043	35.24
		: 24.

Amplification = $\frac{\text{Excitation voltage (R.M.S.)/p-p amp.} \, \mu \, \text{mx1.414:}}{10 \, \text{'s'} \, \text{x} \, 10^{-3}}$

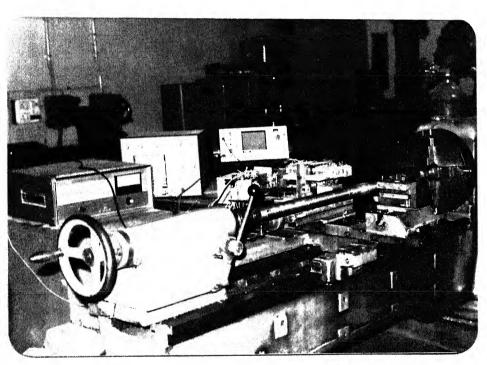


Fig. 2.11 . An overall view of set-up.

Chapter 3

Experimental Results and Discussion

A series of experiments was conducted to determine the performance of the control system. Experiments were conducted for the first seven cutting conditions listed out in Table 2.1. Experiment was also conducted for cutting speed of 37.82 m/min; feed 0.05 mm/rev. and a depth of cut of 0.4 mm.

The workpiece was clamped in a four jaw chuck and supported at the tailstock end by a revolving centre. The workpiece was first rough turned by a rear tool post. This operation was necessary to remove the ovality of the workpiece. This rough-turned workpiece was then turned with the tool which is fixed in the vibrator cum tool holder. Since the set-up is designed basically for finishing operations, small values of depth of cut is taken for turning. The depth of cut was set by a dial gauge.

As the probe lags the tool by a certain distance, for initial setting of the signal voltage level, the workpiece was turned up to a certain length. Then after interrupting the machining process, the output signal from the sensing circuit (Fig. 2.3) was set to zero by the potentiometer. Then the job was turned up to a certain length without feedback, then the feedback signal was fed through the power amplifier. The amplification was set according to the calculated values

The output signals from the sensing circuit without feedback and with feedback are shown in Figs. 3.1 to 3.8. Graphs representing surface profile measured by the Taylor Hobson Talysurf are also shown in Figs. 3.1 to 3.8. The average roughness (R_a) value for the entire cutting length was also measured by the Talysurf. The values of average surface roughness for all cutting conditions with which experiments were conducted both with and without feedback are given in Table 3.1.

3.2 <u>Discussion of Results</u>

From the average surface roughness values (Table 3.1) it is seen that the surface finish has improved for all the cutting conditions when the feedback signal was introduced. In addition, it is also observed that the waveform pattern of the signals from the sensing circuit has slowly decayed to a stable signal after the feedback signal was passed. This is also clear from Talysurf measurements.

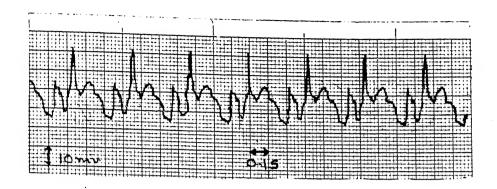
The improvement in surface finish has varied for different cutting conditions. This improvement in surface finish can be expressed by a socalled "improvement coefficient" which can be defined as

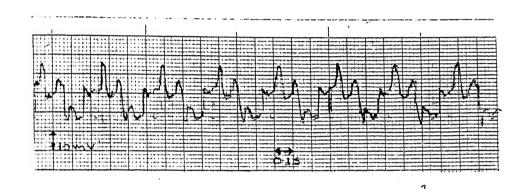
Improvement = Surface roughness Surface roughness without feedback with feedback Surface roughness without feedback

Table 3.1 : Experimental Results

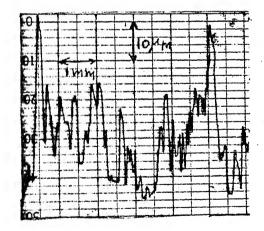
Expt.	Cutting	Feed	Depth	Surface roughness (µms)	hness (µms)	Improvement
. Com	Specu (m/min)	^ 7 /II.II.	mms	Without feedback	With feedback	
	24.20	0.05	0.3	20.0	17.0	0.15
7	24.20	0.075	0.3	12.0	10.0	0.166
	24.20	0.10	0.3	11.5	10.0	0.13
4	30.25	0.050	0.3	18.0	14.0	0.22
2	30.25	0.075	0.3	18.5	15.0	0.18
9	30.25	0.10	0.3	19.1	15.0	0.215
7	38.72	0.05	0.3	13.0	12.1	0.070
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	38.72	0.05	0.4	14.5	14.1	0.027
		***************************************	B. C. San		And the state of t	

Workpiece diameter = 38.52 mms.

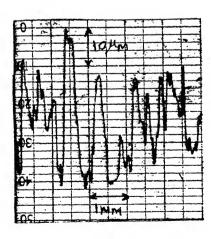




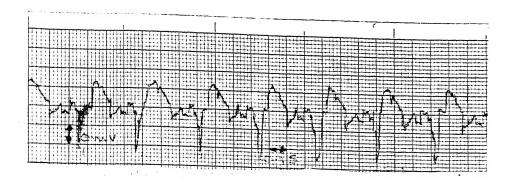
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback

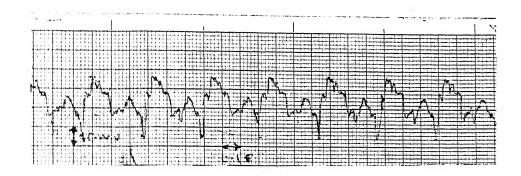


(c) Workpiece surface profile without feedback

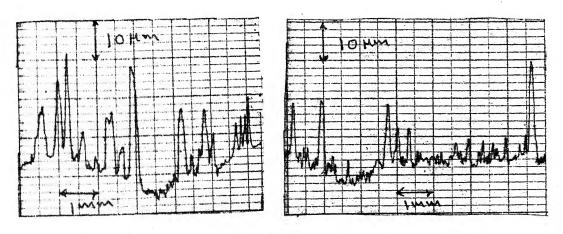


(d) Workpiece surface
 profile with
 feedback



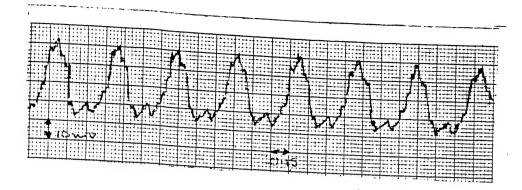


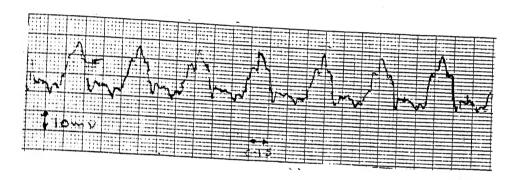
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



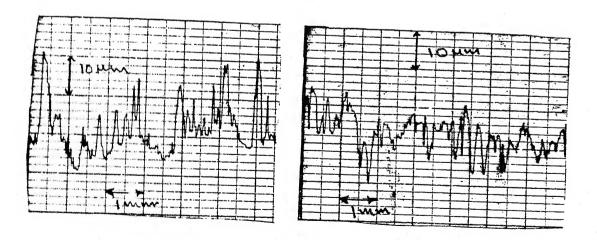
) Workpiece surface profile without feedback (d) Workpiece surface
 profile with
 feedback

Fig. 3.2 : Recorded signals and surface profiles for experiment no.2.



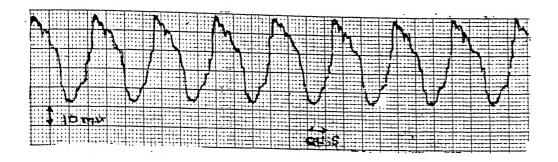


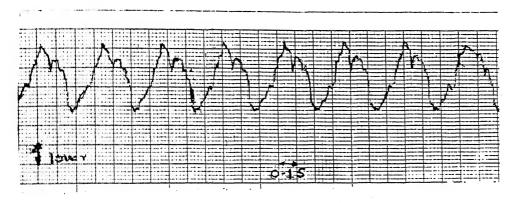
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



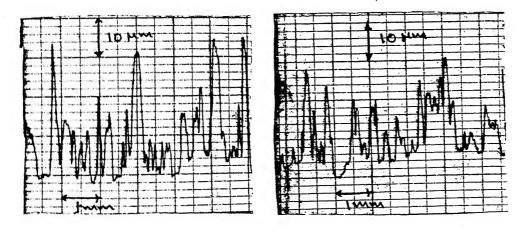
- (c) Workpiece surface profile without feedback
- (d) Workpiece surface profile with feedback

Fig. 3.3: Recorded signals and surface profiles for experiment no.3.



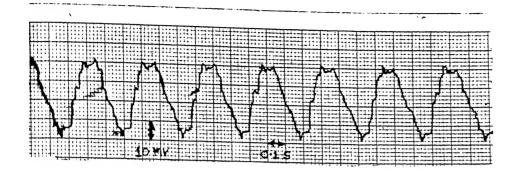


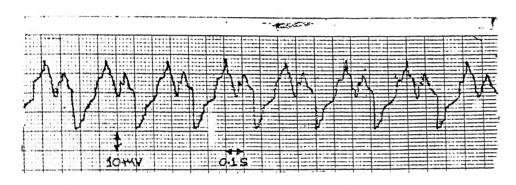
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



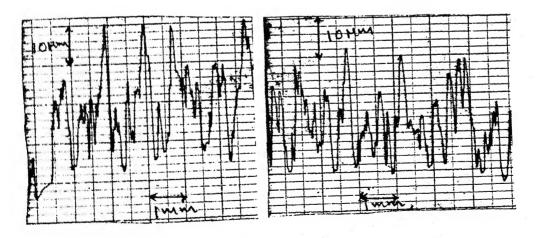
- (c) Workpiece surface profile with out feedback
- (d) Workpiece surface
 profile with feedback

Fig. 3.4 : Recorded signals and surface profiles for



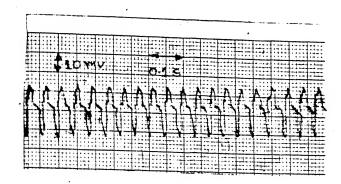


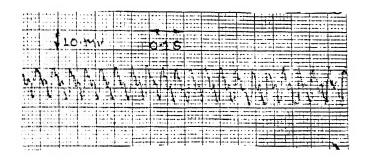
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



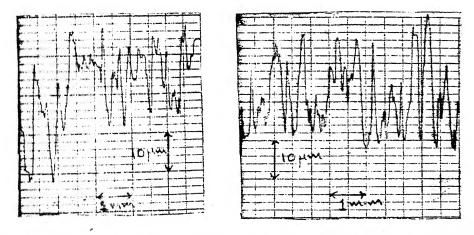
- (c) Workpiece surface profile without feedback
- (d) Workpiece surface profile with feedback

Pic 2 5. Perorded signals and surface profiles



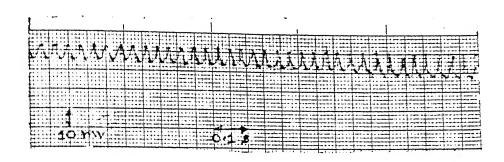


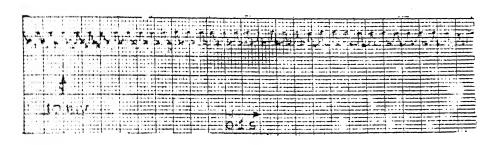
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



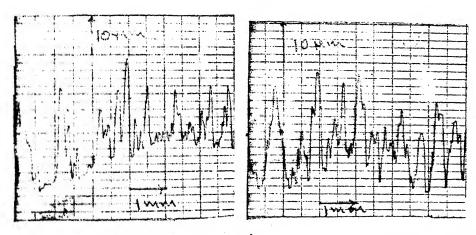
- (c) Workpiece surface profile (d) Workpiece surface profile with out feedback with feedback

: Recorded signals and surface profiles for Fig. 3.6



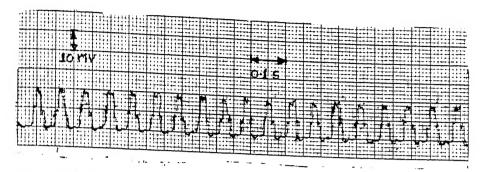


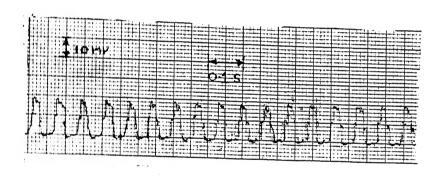
(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



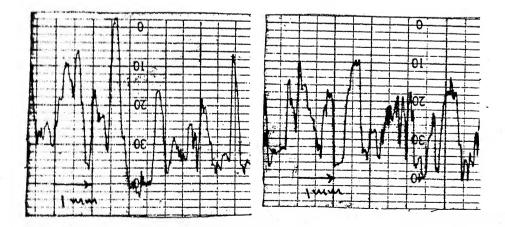
(c) Workpiece surface (d) Workpiece surface profile profile without feedback with feedback

Fig. 3.7: Recorded signals and surface profiles for experiment no. 7.





(b) Sensor signal pattern with feedback



(c) Workpiece surface profile without feedback

(d) Workpiece surface profile with feedback

The values of improvement coefficient for different cutting conditions are given in Table 3.1. The values show a reasonable improvement for all the experiments. The improvement coefficient is in the range of 0.024 to 0.22.

This improvement in surface finish is also seen from the signals recorded from the sensing circuit without and with feedback. There is a distinct reduction in the amplitude of the signals with feedback as compared to the signals without feedback. This amplitude reduction can be defined by a parameter "Amplitude Reduction Ratio" (ARR). This parameter can be defined as

 $\frac{\text{Peak-to-peak amplitude of vibration without feedback (A)}}{\text{Peak-to-peak amplitude of vibration with feedback (A}_{F})}$

(3.2)

As the sensitivity of the sensor is already determined (Table 2.3), the vibration amplitude can be calculated as

The calculated values of ARR and peak-to-peak amplitude have been tabulated in Table 3.2. For an effective control system the ARR should be greater than 1. The ARR has varied from 1.05 to 1.33. The ARR is less for a higher depth of cut as seen from Experiment No. 8.

: Amplitude Reduction Ratios for Various Experiments Table 3.2

Expt. No.	Peak-to peak voltage (mV)	voltage	Peak-to-p μm	Peak-to-peak amplitude (4 ms)	ARR
	Without feedback	With feedback	Without feedback (A)	With feedback $^{(A_{\overline{F}})}$	
н	37	29	48.37	37.91	1.276
7	40	32	19.74	15.79	1.25
, c	36	29	16.32	13.15	1.24
4	45	35	38.89	30.25	1.286
γ Σ	40	34	26.11	22.19	1.176
9	24	18	18.88	14.16	1,33
7	6	œ	5.35	4.756	1,125
80	21	20	12.48	11.89	1.05
	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *				

Chapter 4

Conclusion and Scope for Future Work

4.1 <u>Conclusions</u>

An on-line control system has been designed and tested experimentally. The main objective of improving surface finish has been fulfilled. The performance of the control system has been tested for a certain range of cutting conditions. The principle of the present work is to reduce the disturbing force by an equal and opposite disturbing force.

The following design objectives have been fulfilled:

- (i) Designing an accurate, reliable and sensitive sensor for sensing vibrations in real time.
- (ii) Design, fabrication and testing of an exciter-cumtool holder to excite the tool.
- (iii) Design of a feedback system to control the Chatter occurring during turning operation.

The control system is capable of controlling the Chatter mode within a wide range of frequencies. An additional advantage of the control system is ease of sensing relative displacements because of sufficiently wide range of linearity. As there is no variation between the dynamic

and static sensitivities of the sensor, determining the response of the sensor for any surface can be accomplished by means of static calibration which is easier than that of dynamic calibration. Calibration results also indicate that the sensitivity of the sensor increases with better surface finish.

A principal advantage of the control system is the simplicity of the instrumentation. Instead of the conventional laser beam used in optical sensors an ordinary bulb was used for illumination of the workpiece surface.

However the introduction of an elastic element in the system will lead to a certain amount of instability. The demonstrated results hold good for finishing operations only. Another drawback of the system is that a self adaptive controller is not included in the system. The control is being done manually.

4.2 Scope for Future Work

The present work can be extended further. The system is designed for a single-input and single-output (i.e. the system responds to the principal Chatter mode at a time.) The system can also be designed to respond to other principal modes. A self adaptive controller can be included in the system to control the performance of the system under all conditions. The transportation lag in the sensor can also be taken care of by the controller. This lag can also be reduced

by positioning the sensor probe directly opposite to the tool tip in the radial direction.

The principle of control can also be extended to other machine tools such as grinding, milling, etc.

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<u> Appendix - I</u>

Machine-tool Chatter Theory

The machining of metals is often accompanied by a violent relative vibration between work and tool which is called Chatter. The conventional theory of metal cutting deals entirely with the steady-state cutting process in which the cutting takes place under vibration-free conditions. Under steady-state conditions, the chipthickness, chip width and the cutting speed remain constant.

Let it be assumed that the cutting tool strikes a hard inclusion in the workpiece material and that as a result the forces acting on the tool increases by a small amount. The initial force, however, has already been absorbed by the static deformation of the machine-tool structure. The increase in the forces gives rise to further deformation. Furthermore, the torque acting on the work is increased by a small amount, and this is absorbed by elastic torsional deformation in the drive, with the result that a drop in cutting speed takes place. If the hard inclusion breaks out at time t = 0, a sudden drop in cutting force and torque will occur, and consequently the potential energy stored in the machine-tool structure as the drive will be released to

arise vibration in the system. Similar conditions arise when an elastic system is given an impulse which leads to elastic deformation resulting in vibration. Steady-state cutting process will not be resumed until the vibration has decayed.

This means that it is possible for disturbance affecting the steady-state cutting process to create vibration in the machine tool. If the steady-state cutting operation is disturbed, an additional cutting force element dP will be generated, superimposed on the cutting force P. It may happen that dP is of such a form that it increases the original disturbance, so that a still larger dP is set up and this in turn leads to an even more severe disturbance, and so on. Consequently the machine begins to vibrate, the amplitudes of the vibration rising exponentially. Under these conditions the system is unstable. On the other hand, of course, dP may act in counter to the disturbance, so that the original disturbance vanishes and steady state cutting is resumed. Under these conditions the system is stable.

The disturbance affecting the cutting process is time dependent, and therefore the cutting-force element dP is also a function of time. (Now if a time-variable force acts on the machine tool the latter will be thrown into vibration). If Chatter occurs, however, the time dependence of dP will not alone give rise to instability. The important

property of dP is that it depends not only on the displacement brought about by the disturbance, but also on its velocity.

Forces which are velocity dependent can be regarded as damping forces, and consequently they may be either added to or subtracted from the damping forces of the system. If the damping force introduced is in opposite phase with the disturbing force (usually friction between bolted joints) the result is that the prevailing disturbance will rapidly decay. On the other hand, if the damping force is in phase with the disturbing force, it will reduce the damping of the system. This means that energy is introduced to build up vibration and maintain it. The machine-tool drive acts as the energy reservoir for this purpose.

In lathe operations, one of the most important physical effects, which can lead to dynamic instability is the regenerative effect. The regenerative effect occurs with single-edged tools when the cutting edge cuts a work surface, having marks of previous passes.

Majority of investigations on the dynamic behaviour of Lathe show that under Chatter conditions one of the following vibratory systems is thrown into self-induced vibration (1) spindle-workpiece or spindle-workpiece-tailstock, (2) workpiece, (3) tool.

Hence, in order to avoid Chatter, rigidity of the weakest element has to be increased.

Appendix - II

On-Line Control

On-line control of metal-cutting processes is a logical extension of the CNC systems. This on-line control is known as adaptive control. For a machining operation, the term "adaptive control" denotes a control system that measures certain output process variables and uses these to control the input process variables such as speed, feedrate and depth of cut. Nearly all the cutting parameters that can be measured during metal cutting have been controlled in experimental adaptive control systems. The motivation for developing an adaptive control system lies in trying to operate the process more efficiently. The typical performance indices have been metal removal rate and cost per unit volume of metal removed.

Adaptive control is basically a feedback system in which the operating parameters automatically adapt themselves to the actual conditions of the process. There are many causes for variability in machining where adaptive control can be applied and are listed as follows:

(i) Variable geometry of cut in the form of changing depth or width of cut. In these cases feed rate is

usually adjusted to compensate the variability. Ex: Profile milling, contouring operations.

- Variable workpiece hardness and variable machinability. When hard inclusions in other sorts of difficulties are encountered in the workpiece, either speed or feed is reduced to avoid premature failure of the tool.
 - (iii) Variable workpiece rigidity: If the workpiece deflects as a result of insufficient rigidity in the setup, the feedrate must be reduced to maintain accuracy of the process.
 - tool wear: It has been observed that as tool begins to dull, cutting forces increase. An adaptive control system measures the amount of wear in terms of voltage and feeds it back to the cutting zone to move the tool towards the workpiece surface compensating the tool wear.
 - (v) Intermittent cutting: The workpiece geometry may contain shaped sections where no machining needs to be performed. The typical procedure is to increase feedrates when the gaps are encountered, to improve metal removal rate.

Adaptive control system for machine tools can be classified as (a) Adaptive Control Optimization (ACO), (b) Adaptive Control Constraint (ACC).

In ACO, an index of performance is specified for the system. This specified performance index is a measure of the overall process performance, such as production rate or cost per unit volume of metal removed. The process variables are usually considered to be feed and/or speed in the operation. Although there has been considerable research in the development of ACO systems, few, if any, of these systems are used in practice. The major problems with such systems have been difficulties in defining realistic indices of performance and the lack of suitable sensors which can perform on-line measurement of the necessary parameters in a production environment.

within a prescribed region bounded by process and system constraints, such as maximum torque, power etc. Practically all the Adaptive Control systems for cutting processes which are used in the industries today are of the ACC type and seldom involve the control of more than one operating parameter.

The benefits of adaptive control of machining process are increased production rates, increased tool life, improved accuracy and surface finish, greater safety, less operator intervention and, therefore, less production cost.

Appendix - III

IIIa. The Power Amplifier

The completely transistorized power amplifiers included in the control system deliver full performance at high efficiency over the entire frequency range.

Reduced distortion, noise and wider flat frequency response are the major benefits of the solid-state design. Over-current protection is incorporated in the driver-output stage to reduce the output current to a minimum level whenever the current exceeds a preset value.

IIIb. Power Amplifier Performance

Amplifier Model	2250 MB
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Power output: 250 Va, 5-10,000 Hz

Frequency range: 5-20,000 Hz

Input Impedance: 10,000 Ohm

Frequency response ± 1 db 5-20,000 Hz at 1.0V input:

Distortion: Less than 1%, 5-3,000 Hz.

Less than 3% 5-20,000 Hz

with output voltage derating

linearly above 10,000 Hz

Hum and Noise: 75 db below full output

Signal Input Voltage: Less than 10V rms for full

output

Power Input:

110/220V, 600 Va, 50/60 Hz

Power Dissipation:

400W

Physical dimension:

Portable Model:

17" wx6-3/4"hx14-3/4" d

Weight:

49 pounds

<u>Appendix - IV</u>

Specifications of The Lathe

Type of centre lathe : HMT LB 17

Centre height : 170 mm.

Centre distance : 1000 mm

Swing over bed : 350 mm

Swing over cross slide : 170 mm

Spindle speeds : 18, 45 to 2000 RPM

(10 HP/3000 RPM motor)

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date last stamped.	

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